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ABSTRACT

With all the rhetoric on education appearing in the form of reports, legislative proposals, opinion polls, and statements from the profession, the observation of Lortie (1975) that "teaching, from its inception in America, has occupied a special, but shadowed, social standing. Real regard shown for those who taught has never matched the professed which is still valid." The reality is that teachers recognize they no longer even occupy a position of "shadowed social standing." The professed regard is now more congruent with the real regard. There is a crisis in teaching which directly affects recruitment, preparation, induction and staff development. This paper examines this crisis from the perspective of the individual who selects teaching as a career. The discussion considers the appropriateness of the traditional concept of career development for the individual. What factors will increase the attractiveness of teaching as a career? What factors will increase retention and motivate teachers if the "career ladder" concept will not? It is the intent of this paper to consider the evolution of the individual teacher as he/she passes through the phases of recruitment, preparation, induction and staff development. It is the intent of this paper to integrate the knowledge of each phase into a coherent model of teacher development as it is related to conditions for professional practice. (Author)

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TEACHER EDUCATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

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With all the rhetoric on education appearing in the form of reports, legislative proposals, opinion polls and statements from the profession the observation of Lortie (1975) that "teaching, from its inception in America has occupied a special but shadowed social standing ... Real regard shown for those who taught has never matched the professed regard." (p. 10) is still valid. A decade later this same theme is evident in the following statement:

WANTED

> College graduate with academic major (master's degree preferred). Excellent communication and leadership skills required. Challenging opportunity to serve 150 clients daily, developing up to five different products each day to meet their needs. This diversified job also allows employees to exercise typing, clerical, law enforcement, and social work skills between assignments and after hours. Adaptability helpful, since suppliers cannot always deliver goods and support services on time. Typical work week 47 hours. Special nature of work precludes fringe benefits such as lunch and coffee breaks, but work has intrinsic rewards. Starting salary $12,769 with a guarantee of $24,000 after only 14 years. (Darling-Hammond, 1984, p. 1)

This fictitious "want ad" accurately reflects the conditions under which secondary school teachers function. The reality is that teachers recognize they no longer even occupy a position of "shadowed social standing." The professed regard is now more congruent with the real regard. There is a crisis in teaching which directly affects recruitment, preparation, induction, and staff development of teachers. However, before examining these four phases, it seems appropriate to examine broadly the concept of career development in relation to teachers.

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CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Super and Hall (1978) conceived of career development as composed of four phases. The first phase labeled identity, spans the initial twenty-five (25) years of an individual's life and involves exploration of career options. The second phase, intimacy, covering the ages twenty-five (25) to forty-five (45) years, could be called the boom period. Initially individuals go through some trial and then experience advancement and clear establishment of a career. The third phase, generativity, spanning ages forty-five (45) years to retirement will find individuals either continuing to grow, maintain, or actually stagnate. The final phase beginning at retirement is envisioned as a general decline in performance. Whether this general model is appropriate for teachers is an issue but it is perceived to be generally what individials experience in this society. It is a norm to which we compare career development. If you are not on the fast track by your mid-thirties people wonder.

The career ladder concept is an outgrowth of this model. Given what is perceived as "opportunity squeeze" (Kanter, 1981) in education policymakers and educators have embraced the career ladder concept to attract and retain teachers while providing an option for the "career" teachers. Rosenholtz (1985) examined the following six myths about the career ladder concept:

Myth #1 Pay teachers more and they will teach better.

Myth #2 Competition between teachers for career advancement and higher pay is a sound way to improve the quality of their teaching.

Myth #3 Career ladders and incentive pay will give teachers something to strive toward and, thus, will reduce attrition.

Myth #4 Career ladders will help teachers improve.

Myth #5 Career ladders and incentive pay will attract more academically talented people into the teaching profession.

Myth #6 Teachers who are promoted to career ladder positions can evaluate peers for subsequent promotion. (Rosenholtz, 1985, pp. 351-354)

It is an artificial construct, career ladder, derived from the prevailing model of career development (Super and Hall, 1978) which is "unsupported by research, and ... actually antitheoretical to our assimulated knowledge about teaching." (Rosenholtz, 1985, p. 355). Implicit in the analysis by Rosenholtz (1985) is the recognition that the career ladder concept is based upon the predominate male belief in autonomy and achievement. Women which comprise the vast majority of teachers ascribe more to the notion of attachment and intimacy (Gilligan, 1979). The implementation of the career ladder concept would, indeed, be antitheoretical to the population it is to serve.

The typical model of career development and its' derivations does not represent what individuals in human service careers experience. Individuals in human service careers establish careers much earlier and enter the generativity phase with the potential for growth, maintenance or stagnation much earlier. The two rather limited studies reported by Newman, Burden, and Applegate (1980) indicate that teachers at this stage fluctuate in satisfaction and assume more of a posture of maintenance as opposed to growth. Earlier studies (Lortie, 1975; Zeigler, 1967) presented a much more negative view of longevity in teaching. An image of individuals experiencing a sense of being trapped in a career of little value with no options comes from these studies. This, coupled with the increased retention of teachers (Reighart, 1984), raises serious questions about the options available to policymakers if the career ladder concept is inappropriate as documented to Rosenholtz (1985). What factors will increase the attractiveness of teaching as a

career? What factors will increase the retention and motivate teachers if the career ladder will not?

It is with these basic questions that the review of the literature and recommendations were completed. This section examines the issues of recruitment, pre-service education, induction, and in-service education of teachers.

RECRUITMENT

Supply and Demand: The number of teachers doubled between 1950 (913,671) and 1970 (2,061,115). In 1982, there were 2.13 million classroom teachers in public elementary and secondary schools. Surprisingly, the composition of this work force, over the past three decades, has remained relatively stable in terms of gender and race. Lyson and Falk (1984) described teaching as

> "... most often perceived as an attractive career option by females, non-whites, rural residents, those from lower social class origins, and those who have not performed exceptionally well in high school. Males, whites, urban residents, those from middle class backgrounds, and exceptionally good students, in contrast, have access to a wider range of professional career options and are consequently less likely to pursue a teaching career". (p. 182)

Feistritizer (1983) characterized the typical teacher as

> "a woman approaching her 40th birthday. She has taught for 12 years, mostly in her present district. Over those dozen years, she returned to her local college or university often enough to acquire enough credits for a master's degree. She is married and the mother of two children. She is white and not politically active. Her formal political affiliation, if she has one, is with the Democratic Party. She teaches in a suburban elementary school staffed largely by women. In all likelihood the school principal is male. She has about 23 pupils in her class. When counting her after-hours responsibilities, she puts in a work week slightly longer than the typical laborer, and brings home a pay check that is slightly lower." (p. 1)

However, other comparisons indicate some dramatic changes in the work force. In 1961, 14.6 percent of the teachers did not even possess a bachelor's degree,

while by 1981 over 49.3 percent of the teachers had master's degrees or sixth year diplomas. In addition, the work force has developed a "middle age bulge" primarily among the secondary teachers. The average age of classroom teachers has steadily increased over the past two decades. (Borkow and Jordan, 1983).

The much publicized surplus of teachers in the 1970's will be reversed in the late 1980's. Whether there ever was a teacher surplus is questioned. (Lanier, 1984; Borkow and Jordan, 1983). Certainly in selected subject matter areas (i.e. mathematics, science, art, foreign language, bilingual education, special education) (Darling-Hammond, 1984; Musemeche and Adams, 1978; Herman, 1978) and geographic regions, shortages existed in the 1970's (Dunathan, 1979) and are even more severe now. This general impression that an "oversupply" existed, coupled with other social trends, stimulated college students to select other career opportunities. In 1970-71 21 percent of all bachelor's degrees were awarded to education majors and by 1983 this figure dropped to approximately 11 percent. The National Center for Educational Statistics (1980) predicts that this percentage will drop to approximately 8.4 percent by 1988. This decrease in percent of individuals completing degree programs in education takes on greater significance when one realizes that the college enrollments will also shrink to 6.7 million in 1988 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1980). In essence, the <u>real</u> number of individuals prepared to teach has dropped dramatically and will continue. This, coupled with the projected increase in enrollments in elementary schools, suggests that nationally by 1990 there will be 18-19 percent increase in the number of elementary school teaching positions and nationally there will be a shortage. However, by 1990 there is anticipated a drop of 19 percent of students in the 14-17 age group, which, if the "middle age bulge" among secondary teachers is true, leads one to believe

adjustments/reallocations will be made from the secondary to elementary schools; especially, given the fact that it is anticipated there will be only one percent increase in the school-age population. School districts' finances are driven by numbers of students so it will be a matter of reallocation rather than increased revenue to adjust to the growth in the elementary schools.

Summary: These data at the national level have created the impression that there was, and is, an oversupply of teachers. It is suggested that such an impression was not accurate (Ferstritizer, 1983; Lanier, 1984) and that, in fact, there has existed for a number of years a shortage of qualified teachers in certain subjects and geographic areas (Borkow and Jordan, 1983). There exists a lack of accurate information about regional needs for teachers. There is good reason to believe there will be a general teacher shortage in the late 1980's and certainly by 1990 (Darling-Hammond, 1984; Imig, 1985) but whether that need will be as great in the various regions of this nation is unclear. The exact nature of the need requires clarification. It is believed that the need for teachers prepared in mathematics and science will reach crisis proportions. The fact that the traditional labor pool, 18-24 year olds, will shrink dramatically by 1990 suggests the problem is acute. Thus, it is recommended that accurate information be gathered on a regional basis to determine the need for teachers by subject, grade level, and setting.

Academic Quality: The issue of quality is almost an irrational obsession among policymakers. Sandefur (1984) indicated that by July 1, 1984, 32 states reported that some form of "competency testing" of teachers at either the entry level to teacher education or prior to certification. A relatively recent phenonema, it represents the public's concern for ensuring better teaching. However, the reality of the situation is summarized by Lanier (1984).

> The U.S. commitment to mass schooling makes the teaching force so large and so common, in fact, that the U.S. must look to more or less average students, as well as to the highly talented, if it is to acquire enough teachers for its classrooms. Such awareness should help, as Broudy (1980) suggests in another context, "understand why the goal of putting an inspirational teacher in every classroom is one of the great mischievous illusions of our times" (p. 448). (Lanier, 1984, p. 39)

There is considerable evidence to suggest that those entering teacher education are of lower academic ability (Roberson, Keith, and Page, 1983; Sykes, 1983; Darling-Hammond, 1984; Kerr, 1983; Clark, 1984).

Care must be taken in intepreting the data. There are data (Vance and Schlechty, 1982) which indicate a significant proportion of academically talented students completed teacher education programs and actually taught. It is unclear from which type of institution of higher education the more academically talented students graduated. There is considerable concern about the number of teacher education programs in the U.S. (Clark, 1984). Clark (1984) stated that "so many institutions of higher education does not represent a commitment to preparing excellent teachers ... It represents, instead, a commitment to serving the vocational needs of their undergraduate population." (p. 117). Between 1973 and 1984 the enrollment in teacher education dropped 35 percent from approximately 688,000 to 440,000 students while the actual number of colleges and universities preparing teachers increased from 1,122 to 1,287 in 1983. The number of institutions with

enrollments under a thousand offering teacher education programs increased 51 percent; during the same period 16 percent of the institutions with an enrollment of over ten thousand students dropped teacher education programs. These data are significant. The larger public and private institutions have historically prepared the bulk of the teachers and it is seriously questioned whether the small institutions have the capacity to provide sound professional preparation for teachers (Clark, 1984; Feistritzer, 1984). If there are differences in the academic talent of teachers graduating from the various types of institutions of higher education it is difficult to determine. However, the impression gleaned from the survey by Ishler (1984) of institutions belonging to the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities was that these institutions might have higher academic standards in teacher education than other institutions. When using other measures of academic achievement such as grade-point average the education majors at one major institution achieved a significally higher g.p.a. than non-education majors in subject-matter courses within the academic disciplines of the non-education majors (Stolee, 1982). A similar study at another major teacher education institution (Book, Freeman, and Brousseau, 1984) led the authors to the conclusion that "teaching majors are not from the 'bottom of the academic heap' ..." (p. 21). However, even with these studies it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that there are a disproportionate number of individuals with limited academic potential "pursuing a career that is basically academic in nature." (Lanier, 1984, p. 45).

Considerable concern is raised in the literature, not only about the previously discussed limited academic potential of teachers, but the fact

that even it is dropping (Dearman and Plisko, 1982; Vance and Schlechty, 1982; Weaver, 1982). In the much cited study of North Carolina teachers between 1973-1980 Vance and Schlechty (1982) found a general decline of academic ability as measured by the NTE and most of the decline in academic ability was among the white females completing teacher education programs. In a recent study (Frank and Keith, 1984), no differences in academic abilities of persons completing undergraduate special education programs between 1975-76 and 1980-81 inclusively were found. There were no significant differences among the six graduating classes as SAT verbal and math scores. The academic ability of students in this study varied little over a five-year period of time. It should be noted, however, these programs have enrollments based on competitive admissions because of lack of student teaching sites and this might affect the sample.

Summary: There is considerable concern about the academic ability of teachers nationally. Whether this concern is justified for this region is not clear. Also, it is unclear if there are differences in the academic ability of teacher education graduates among the various types of institutions of higher education. Thus, it is recommended that a study of the academic ability of individuals completing teacher education controlling for institutional characteristics.

Academic Quality and Shortages: If, indeed, the academic aptitude of teachers is a significant concern, which the national data and literature indicate than as Clark (1984) stated "Nothing is more simple in most teacher training programs than adjusting the entrance standards." (p. 117). Simply raise the academic standards. Such a decision will, of course, reduce the size of the talent pool and could reduce the number of students enrolled in teacher education and, thus, exacerbate the projected shortages of teachers. The possible

reduction in numbers of students enrolled in teacher education makes faculty and administrators in colleges and universities extremely nervous for they envision the loss of revenue. Historically, teacher education programs have supported less "profitable" academic programs. Policymakers might find in the next decade such a shortage of teachers that they will insist that standards be reduced. However, it is mere conjecture, at this point, that by increasing the academic standards fewer students will elect teaching as a career option. Although there are data (Scannell, 1984) which indicate by increasing the requirements in teacher education the better qualified academically students are attracted, it is still unclear what the impact is on enrollments. One wonders if we can ensure quality while still preparing enough teachers. Given that over 94 percent of schools of education are in the midst of change which is qualitative in nature (Imig, 1984) it seems the impact of raising academic standards upon the number of students enrolled in teacher education could be examined. It should be noted that raising of standards will, in all probability, decrease the number of students in teacher education. If, indeed, policymakers are concerned about the quality, and soon the quantity of teachers, salaries need to be increased. Not only is there a relationship between the relative starting salaries and the number of students selecting a major (Freeman and Breneman, 1974; Freeman, 1975; Freeman, 1976), but also there is a relationship between starting salaries, choice of major and ability as measured by ACT. (Murphy, 1984). Therefore, it is recommended that a study be conducted to determine the impact of raising the academic standards upon the number of students entering teacher education.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

The evolution of a teacher is unclear; in part, because of the lack of clarity of expectations for teachers, and, in part, because few individuals have examined the process. Few have assumed a process-product paradigm in determining the impact of teacher education without considering the context over time. Some have examined teacher development from the perspective of professional development (Fuller and Bown, 1975; Mertens and Yarger, 1980) while other more recent recommendations have emphasized the teacher as learner. Within this latter concept, it is not the academic reflective concern of some (Clark, 1984; Dewey, 1904; Lanier, 1984) which is emphasized but more, the human development perspective (Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall, 1983; Kohlberg, 1968; Loevinger, 1966; Perry, 1969; Hunt, 1975). Indeed, those concerned with "the human development" perspective have demonstrated relationships between numerous variables (e.g. conceptual level, moral development, cognitive development). The focus of this section is limited to professional development of teachers.

Initially, Fuller (1969) proposed three stages of teacher development which were later identified and expanded (Fuller and Bown, 1975) to include the following:

Pre-teaching concerns: identified with pupils and frequently critical of the classroom teacher observed.

Survival concerns: a high stress period for now the individual is a teacher with concerns about class control, supervisors, mastery of subject matter.

Teaching situation concerns: focuses upon the frustration and the inability to engage in professional practice given the conditions in schools (e.g. lack of time and materials).

Pupil impact concerns: broader view of the needs of the students, and the appropriateness of approaches and individualization.

Other descriptions of the professional development of teachers parallel clearly what Fuller and Bown (1975) proposed. One might envision the pre-teaching and initial survival concerns being experienced when in teacher education programs, while the induction phase involves survival and teaching situation concerns. Those teachers involved in in-service programs are more frequently concerned about the teaching situation but, more specifically, about the pupil. The following three sections of this paper examine the teacher during the phases of pre-service, induction and in-service education.

PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Student Motivation: What motivates students with limited academic qualifications to pursue what is considered to be an academic career? Lortie (1975) identified the following five "attractors":

a. The desire to work with people (interpersonal theme)

b. Provide a service to the community (service theme)

c. Continuation of the school experience (continuation theme)

d. Job security and social mobility (material benefits)

e. Flexible calendar (time compatability)

Whether these five "attractors" are still prevalent today is questionable. Society no longer values as much on the contributions of teachers, the material rewards are decreasing, the school as a work place is less attractive, mobility has decreased in the profession, and the students are not as appreciative or motivated as they were a decade ago. Teachers, who in the past, stimulated students to pursue teaching as a career are today even less likely to encourage their own sons and daughters (Gallup, 1984). Boyer (1983) emphasized the hypocrisy of higher education in the recruitment and preparation of teachers. Higher education proclaims the importance of education but "Professors who work with schools are not rewarded and students who want to teach are often told that this would be a big mistake." (p. 173). Boyer (1983) continued " ... colleges call for 'excellence in the schools' while spending several hundred million dollars every year recruiting athletes and spending virtually no time or money recruiting prospective teachers." (p. 173). Yet, given the condition of the schools and the social press existing on college campuses students are still electing teaching as a career. Yarger, Howey and Joyce (1977) summarized the "attractors" in the following:

> "... The overwhelming reason why teaching was chosen as a career was a desire to work with children. Working hours and vacation periods were also influential, with security mentioned less often. Students see teaching as fulfilling, important and challenging. It is not a profession which offers high income or professional mobility. Students do not see teaching as a job with high levels of power or status, but they report that these characteristics are not particularly important to them." (p. 35)

A similar conclusion was reached in a more limited study by Wood (1978). In a more recent study (Book, Freeman, and Brousseau, 1984) in comparing education majors with non-education majors found:

> "... many students who might have considered a teaching career avoid the low salaries, real or imagined employment prospects, lack of career development, and routine which may characterize the teaching profession. Those students choosing a teaching career see beyond the deficits of teaching and are motivated to fulfill their needs to help and teach others." (p. 21)

These results are rather consistent with the nature of the population from which teachers are drawn. Largely, white women from small towns and rural areas are attracted to teaching "to help and teach others." This is congruent with Gilligan's (1979) statement that women value attachment and intimacy as opposed to achievement, especially at the expense of others, and autonomy. The concept of helping others is more closely associated with the female gender.

Individuals enter teacher education with a desire to help others but with "low expectations for the professional knowledge aspects of their education." (Lanier, 1984, p. 53) These are perceptions shared within the university communities and the teaching profession. Book, Byers, and Freeman (1983) found many students felt they had little to learn about teaching and that what is to be learned could be achieved through actually teaching. Teaching is a craft to be learned about apprenticeship. It is a quest for practicability which is borne out of the need to survive in the classroom but which is impossible to achieve. Greene (1978) argues in the following statement that it is an impossible expectation:

> "No matter how practical, how grounded our education courses were, they suddenly appear to be totally irrevelant in the concrete situation where we find ourselves. This is because general principles never fully apply to new and special situations, especially if those principles are thought of as prescriptions or rules. Dewey spoke of principles as modes of methods of analyzing situations, tools to be used in 'judging suggested courses of action.' ... We forget that, for a rule to be universally applicable, all situations must be fundamentally alike; and, as most of us know, classroom situations are always new and never twice alike. Even so, we yearn sometimes for what might be called a 'technology of teaching,' for standard operating procedures that can be relied upon to 'work'. Devoid of these, we project our frustration back upon whatever teacher education we experience. (pp. 27-28)

Indeed, there are serious questions about pandering to this disenchantment. As Dewey stated:

> "For immediate skill may be got at the cost of power to go on growing. The teacher who leaves the professional school with power in managing a class of children may appear to superior advantage the first day, the first week, the first month, or even the first year, as compared with some other teacher who has a much more vital command of the psychology, logic, and ethics of development. But later 'progress' may with such consist only in perfecting and refining skill already possessed. Such persons seem to know how to teach but are not students of teaching. Even though they go on studying books of pedagogy, reading teachers' journals, attending teachers' institutes, etc., yet the root of the matter is not in them, unless they continue to be students of subject matter and students of mind activity. Unless a teacher is such a student, he may continue to improve the mechanics of school management, but he cannot grow as a teacher, an inspirer and director of soul-life. How often do candid instructors in training schools acknowledge disappointment in the later careers to even their more promising candidates? They seem to strike twelve at the start. There is an unexpected and seemingly unaccountable failure to maintain steady growth. (Dewey, 1904, p. 9)

To foster the technician's mentality will discourage the more academically able from pursuing a career in teaching and perpetuate the existing quest for something practical among teachers.

Summary: The traditional "attractors" identified are still valid but are not related to stimulating intellectual curiousity or a sense of inquiry. The very essence of a profession is not evident in the "attractors". To ignore this issue is to relegate teaching to a semi-professional status at best. Therefore, it is recommended that educators develop and implement a variety of approaches to recruit and retain academically talented individuals to education.

The recruitment of academically talented students is not sufficient. To attract academically talented students serious examination of the nature of existing teacher education programs must occur. The following review of the literature focuses upon two elements which are essential to improving the intellectual climate of teacher education; the deans of education and the professoriate.

Professoriate: Lanier (1984) indicated the very definition of teacher educator is difficult for the researcher "since teacher education is practically everyone's, and yet no one's obvious responsibility or priority." (p. 9) The tendency in higher education is for the professor to identify with an academic discipline, a pattern one observes, even in colleges of education. A professor is a mathematics or science educator but not a teacher educator. Professors proclaim the importance of public education but no one will identify with it.

Few studies of the professoriate in education exist. Fuller and Bown (1975) describe teacher educators as drawn from humble origin who join the academy late; largely white, male, campus-bound faculty who emphasize teaching. Although critized frequently for lack of scholarship, teacher educators publish at a rate comparable to faculty members in other disciplines (Ladd, 1979). Based upon a limited sample, Ducharme and Agne (1982)

validated these findings. However, Guba and Clark (1978), in a much more extensive study, state that on a per faculty member basis, even in the doctoral level schools, colleges, and universities, the norm was non-productivity. Less than 20 percent of the teacher education units had faculty actively engaged in research and development. Champion (1984) examined the use of research in undergraduate teacher education programs at six non-doctorate granting institutions of higher education and concluded:

> " ... In essence, these teacher educators do not appear to be grasping for scientific evidence to convince their students or to develop firm rules for teaching." (p. 12)

Those who teach methods classes and supervise student teachers are characterized as lacking probing thought and analysis (Hogan, 1983; Katz and Raths, 1983; Zeichner and Tabachnich, 1982). Is it possible that the very emphasis on excessive technicalism which is a primary concern about teachers is actually modeled and nurtured in a non-reflective manner by teacher educators. Teacher educators who recognize the need for survival skills in their students might actually foster this pragmatism. Although 90 percent had experience as a classroom teacher, which typically amounted to approximately eight years, one wonders how long it has been since they actually taught. It suggests that even the techniques proposed are either dated or they have not employed them personally. Flexner, whose efforts lead to the implementation of the clinical, research and teaching model in medical education would note even today, not only the continued emphasis in teacher education on emphasis upon "atomistic training ... hostile to the development of intellectual grasp" (p. 174), but also the lack of clinical experience among teacher educators.

Summary: The professoriate has only limited responsibility for teacher education. Teacher educators have limited involvement in the generation or dissemination of research. The concern is for the development of survival skills in students and not reflective thought. This is coupled with the lack of opportunity to engage in "clinical practice". Thus, it is recommended that institutions of higher education incorporate opportunities to strengthen "the clinical experiences" for teacher educators as well as other developmental opportunities.

Deans: Deans could best be conceptualized as "marginal people" neither faculty nor administrators. Little is known about this creature in higher education, yet expectations are quite high. In examining the perceived effectiveness of deans (Cole, 1983), it was found that they were "moderately effective." Deans were perceived as most effective in faculty affairs, financial affairs, instructional programs and student affairs. They were perceived as least effective in the area of research. Of particular concern were the low over all ratings given by faculty across the five areas. When compared with other levels of decision makers (faculty department chairpersons, dean, and chief academic officers) deans were perceived as most effective. The tenure of the person occupying the deanship might influence the perceived effectiveness of that individual. In assessing the "honeymoon period" of deans, Rooney and Clark (1982) found some differences in the perceptions of faculty of new deans, less than six years' service, versus, veteran deans, six or more years of service. New deans are perceived as influential in acquiring outside resources, changing the mission of the college, and creating change in the college. New deans are perceived as only influencing the research activities of the faculty and only slightly more likely to involve faculty in the decisionmaking process.

When a limited number of deans (Fullerton, 1978) were asked to identify what they believed were important issues in education, as well as issues in the role of deans, one gleans some impressions of the deans' concerns. The primary issue for deans is the cultivation and promotion of ideas among faculty and students. Second, was the lack of time to publish, while the third was the lack of leisure time. When asked to rank in degree of important selected skills, new deans (Heald, 1982), as did search committee chairs, indicated such items as leadership, decision making, communication, human relations, communication skills, faculty relations skills, and programmatic development skills as important. Scholarship was a prerequisite and not an essential skill to function; expected to lead but not remain current.

It is not uncommon for individuals to draw the parallel between the role of a building principal and a dean when it comes to programmatic change within a college of education. Deans have the capacity to block or stop programmatic change, but whether they are able to bring about change was an issue examined by Arends, Reinhard, and Sivage (1981). Operating upon the belief the dean is important in stimulating change, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped established the Deans' Grant Program. It was a select sample of these grants that Arends, Reinhard, and Sivage (1981) investigated. They identified three clusters of behaviors: choreography, advocacy, and communication, which supported curriculum change in teacher education. Indeed, a dean can influence programmatic change.

Summary: Deans are expected to provide leadership, be decisive, planful, and committed to programmatic development. They can be instrumental in shaping the mission of a college, yet they have little time for scholarship. Deans facilitate others, but have little opportunity for personal growth.

INDUCTION

After completing a teacher education program the concern for survival experienced as a student teacher continues, for now the teacher has the sole responsibility for the classroom (Fuller and Bown, 1975). Given the cellular nature of schools (Lortie, 1975), teachers are confronted with a "sink or swim" situation. Veenman (1984) reviewed studies concerned with the problems of beginning teachers and found the following eight most frequently cited: classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, assessing student work, relationships with parents, organizations of class work, insufficient materials and supplies, and dealing with problems of individual students. The focus is upon merely surviving with students in the classroom. It is these concerns "about the self" which teachers need to resolve before focusing upon the teaching situation or the pupil. In terms of career development (Super and Hall, 1978) it is the trial period. The development of the teacher at this critical phase needs to consider the individual within a socialization framework (Veenman, 1984). The implications of the present form of induction are summarized by Houston and Felder (1982):

> "When a new teacher becomes frustrated, anxiety ridden, and exhausted, the students, and the entire profession suffer. New teachers must be inducted into the profession humanely, in ways that engender pride, openness, and increased professional competence and stature." (p. 460)

It is during the first year that teachers experience the most difficulty, yet no assistance is provided (Adams, 1982). Chapman (1983) stated that

> "Early frustration may act to discourage teachers from pursuing their career, both as it leads to direct job dissatisfaction and as it shapes beginning teachers' professional and social patterns that affect retention in a more subtle way. One might expect that a positive first teaching experience would be positively related to retention and, further, would be substantially related to a person's ratings of adequacy of his or her teacher preparation program." (p. 45)

Yarger (1982) stated the lack of induction programs for teachers could be attributed to the lack of willingness of institutions to assume responsibility, limited resources, political power struggle in teacher education, mere logistical concerns, and the public's belief in the competency testing concept. Implicitly, the responsibility is placed on teacher education. If a person was adequately prepared, induction would not be necessary. Such a position is unjustified. It should also be noted that many forms of the induction process are in practice (e.g. team teaching, mentors, reduction in teaching loads, printed materials) but little research exists to support such efforts. The induction phase, however, spans more than one year. In all probability, induction processes are probably through the last two stages: teaching situation and pupil concern (Fuller and Bown, 1975). The fact that teachers seem to "peak out" after five to seven years (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978) implies that, indeed, teachers reach the generativity place in career development (Super and Hall, 1978) much earlier than other professionals.

The lack of adequate induction into the profession may contribute to the attrition of teachers. The issue of teacher attrition is one prime concern of policymakers and educators. More than 50 percent of the teachers leave the profession after six (6) years. Earlier studies raised questions about the academic ability of teachers, but often

neglected other results reported by the same studies (Schlechty and Vance, 1982; Frank and Keith, 1984). Simply, there is a disproportionate number of the academically more talented teachers leaving the profession. In fact, there are data (Perry, 1981) which suggest the best are not being hired. What factors would increase retention of teachers? Super and Hall (1978) identified job autonomy, job challenge, and financial compensation as related to job retention. These are not attributes of teaching.

The impression is that teachers have autonomy but, upon closer examination, one realizes that much of the teachers' classroom behavior is driven by forces outside the classroom. The curriculum is established, textbooks are selected, and a schedule is established frequently with little input from teachers. There is little opportunity to use professional judgment. The image of the teacher as part of the production line is not too difficult to accept. The difficulty is that the teacher has no control of the materials or the process, but the product is consistently inspected.

The job challenge is diminished by the mere dailiness of teaching. The same routine will be repeated yearly and only the faces will change. The variation is limited for you know, as teachers, you will be confronted yearly (Lieberman and Miller, 1978) with little opportunity to develop new skills, gain recognition, or possibly be promoted. The very structure of the organization ensures obsolescence. The opportunity for collaboration is limited.

In most careers, performance is rewarded but teachers are confronted with the reality that the salary structure is tied to seniority. Although teachers accept that the financial rewards are limited, the symbolism of the sameness conveys a message.

In essence, the very elements which increase retention of professionals are lacking in education. Chapman and Hutcheson (1982) confirmed that those who left teaching indicated salary, job autonomy, and, in the case of elementary teachers, the opportunity to contribute to important decisions as the reasons. Those who left teaching were characterized as primarily investigators. They possessed a "spirit of inquiry" which teacher education was to nurture. In an attempt to determine "satisfaction" of teachers, Chapman and Lowther (1982) found women were more satisfied than men, the ability to influence others and recognition by administrators were also contributing factors to job satisfaction. Wangberg, Metzger and Levitou (1982) reported job dissatisfaction among female elementary school teachers to be related to work conditions and perceptions of career options. Experience was not related to degree of dissatisfaction. The authors suggest that the combination of dissatisfaction, with more career options available to women, will eventually influence the quality of elementary education.

Summary: The induction phase probably spans what Fuller and Bown (1975) referred to as teaching situations and pupil concerns. What induction processes are employed in education are not validated and short-term in nature. The predominate mode still seems to take the form of "sink or swim." The cellular nature of schools does not create an opportunity for collaboration or nurturing of a spirit of collegiality. As a result, the academically talented teachers with a spirit to inquiry leave the profession.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Theoretically, after induction, teachers have an opportunity for continued growth, stagnation, or maintenance (Super and Hall, 1978). However, change in the patterns of teacher behavior are not likely to occur. McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) stated teacher "peak out" after five - seven years of teaching. Teachers who are described as idealists and dedicated to helping others lose their enthusiasm and capacity to change. "This 'calcifying' affect seemed less an intrinsic characteristic of teachers or of the role of teaching than testimony to the way schools are managed." (McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978, p. 84). Teachers, in comparison to other occupational groups, are highly "social" and value opportunities to interact with co-workers (Super, 1970; Holland, 1973). But given the cellular nature of the schools reinforced by a sense of vulnerability, teachers retreat to their cells. The primary source of stimulation and identity comes from children. In short, teaching is a lonely profession.

The concept of staff development (in-service education) took on significance in the 1970's when policymakers recognized the lack of mobility among teachers, and colleges experienced severe enrollment decline in teacher education programs. Policymakers required "in-service units" for recertification of teachers, and universities developed "short courses" and off-campus degree programs. Professors became circuit riders much like ministers in the past. In the 1980's the mobility of teachers is more limited and national reports are replete with recommendations for staff development, continuing

education or in-service education of teachers. Boyer (1983) stated "The time has come to recognize that continuing education must be an essential part of the professional life of every teacher. ... Excellence in education will be achieved only as we invert in the education of the teachers in the classroom." (p. 179). Again, it seems that the teacher will be solely responsible for the achievement of excellence, a position which will only increase teachers' sense of vulnerability and frustration.

McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) concluded that "the only consensus about staff development is that what we have now is ineffective and a waste of time." (p. 70). Staff development presently is envisioned in many schools as meetings after school or maybe a series of one-day workshops. Teachers are frustrated by these experiences and they resent the intrusion of their time. Part-time jobs, family responsibilities and the need for preparation for the next day all compete for the same time "things" are done in the name of staff development. What would motivate teachers confronted with these conditions to become involved in staff development? What helps teachers maintain new skills and knowledge?

The characteristic of effective staff development programs for teachers have been identified (Burrello and Osbaugh, 1982; Rosenholtz, 1985), but the summary of the Rand Corporation study by McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) provided the greatest insight into the questions raised. The Rand Corporation study investigated the impact of nearly four hundred federal supported projects from the staff development perspective. McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) identified four major clusters of variables: institutional motivation, project implementation strategies, institutional leadership and certain teacher characteristics, as they relate to change. The aspects of each of these four clusters are examined in the following:

Institutional Motivation: Project success was directly related to the teachers' willingness to work hard and make it happen. This commitment of teachers was directly related to the scope of the change. The greater the change, in terms of complexity and impact, the more motivated were the teachers. One might conclude that teachers had more opportunity and power to influence their profession (Kanter, 1981), and, thus, were willing to do extra work. The motivation of the district managers was a direct "signal" to teachers. If the district managers were not committed to the "change" teachers were less committed. The degree of commitment of teachers, as well as administrators, was directly influenced by the form the project-planning which took place. If it was from the "top-down" "grass-roots" resistance was produced. Collaborative planning was directly related to long- and short-term success of the change. It ensures a broad base commitment. One result which was intriguing was the negative impact extrinsic rewards had upon project success. Teachers when paid for training were less likely than others to report achievement of goals. The importance of intrinsic rewards, opportunity to engage in collaborative professional activities and the power to influence, were more important. These results validate what we know about the movitation of teachers.

Project Implementation Strategies: Two dimensions identified in this cluster have direct implication for staff development, staff training activities and training support activities. In the staff training it was found that specific skill training had only a short-run effect. At best, it is transient and teachers did not assimilate or personalize the skills. Staff support activities in the form of resource personnel, project meetings and participation in project decisions when perceived as useful "had strong positive and direct effects on the longer-term project outcomes..." (p. 77). It was not the quantity of time involved in the support activities, but the quality which ensured transfer and maintenance of skills. Also, of interest is not only the demonstrated need for teachers to have clear goals, but also conceptual clarity. Teachers must develop a conceptual road map to assimilate the change.

Institutional Leadership: Although the commitment of the building principal and the skills of the project staff were related to change climate of the school was also important. McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) stressed this finding in the following:

> " ... the study found that the school climate was as important as the principal in the continuation of project methods and materials once the federal funding was terminated ... the quality of the school's organizational climate - whether teachers felt the school was a good place to work in, had esprit de corps, was efficient, and was managed effectively by the principal - influenced the quality of project relationship... a supportive organizational environment with a strategy of teacher participation in project adaptation were most able to implement effectively and continue their innovations. (p. 83)

Teacher Characteristics: Three teacher characteristics were directly related to project outcomes, years of experience, verbal ability, and sense of efficacy. The years of experience seemed to have a curvilinear relationship to project outcomes. Teachers seemed to "peak out" at between 5 - 7 years of experience and either maintained their level of effectiveness or actually became less effective. This "calcifying" effect suggests that teachers hit their peak much earlier than other professions. Teachers, at this point in their development, want to explore new areas and not learn more and more about less and less.

The verbal ability of the teacher was directly related to student achievement, as was the teacher's sense of efficacy. In fact, the sense of self-efficacy was also related to their change as teachers, continuation of the change, and sense of professional competence as well.

Summary: Teachers are motivated to help others in collaboration with others. The cellular nature of schools denies teachers this opportunity and furthermore creates conditions in which professional practice is difficult. The impact upon the teacher is a "calcifying" affect. Teachers retreat to the classroom and develop a ritual to be repeated yearly. Others frequently just leave the profession. To suggest this is true of all teachers and all schools is not true, but the concern is pervasive to consider the conditions for professional practice.

The dailiness and isolation of the classroom is a consistent theme throughout the literature. The routine of the classroom, combined with little opportunity to develop and apply new skills, is antitheoretical to the concept to a profession. Teachers find themselves learning more and more about less and less.

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